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THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE

Introduction to People in Change and the Taba Program in Social Science

THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE

Introduction to People in Change and the Taba Program in Social Science

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Introduction To *People In Change*

RATIONALE FOR SELECTION OF CONTENT

People in Change is a series of student source books focusing on people and emphasizing change. The books are designed to give students an overview of the history, life, and culture of people different from themselves, and to help them understand these differences.

Each book presents case studies of people interacting with their environment either in the past or in the present. From this interaction comes change, and the books show people experiencing the pressures and problems that accompany change. People are seen in relation to changing values, changing economic bases, changing forms of government, changing roles of religion, changing social institutions, etc.

Students are encouraged to recognize that change is a constant factor in the history of man. Their ability to make rational decisions in the future may depend on how well they understand and accept the inevitability of change.

Canada, Australia, New Zealand presents five groups of people from the three countries. These groups illustrate what a group is, how it functions, and how individuals in a group interact.

The cases "A Family in Toronto" and "A Family in Yarramalong" look at present-day families in Canada and Australia. Students read about the various aspects of interaction and decision-making among members of the family and with groups outside the family. The three remaining studies examine the traditions and history of "The Kwakiutl of British Columbia," "The Tiwi of Australia," and "The Maori of New Zealand." Students see the ways these people have changed as conditions around them changed.

Europe presents four descriptions of western European people and governments during different historical periods. Each study illustrates the life styles of different groups of people during that period, what the people expected from their leaders, what the leaders did, and how the people reacted.

Students first study ancient Greece and Athenian democracy under Pericles. Here students examine the Greek ideals of citizen participation, loyalty to government, and democracy. They further examine how people reacted when their confidence in both leader and system of governance was destroyed, and what happened as a result. In the next three studies, students move through the Glorious Revolution in England, the French Revolution, and Germany during the Nazi Movement. They examine how the people did or did not affect a change when a leader or system of government did not meet their expectations. Throughout this study, students are asked to make comparisons to contemporary leaders and government.

Latin America presents four case studies chosen to illustrate different ways change occurs and the reactions of people to change.

In "The Mundurucú of Brazil" people change their way of life by adopting metal tools and a new economic system. Students compare early

Mundurucú, who lived in tribal villages before the explorers came, with today's Mundurucú, who live in nuclear family groups, earning money by tapping rubber trees. The "Incas of Peru" shows how one people extended their control through conquest and assimilation of numerous tribal villages. In a period of rapid change, the Inca empire became a highly developed civilization under Pachacutec. "The Nabuco Family of Colonial Brazil" shows people trying to maintain a life style that is no longer possible because of changing political and economic conditions. "People of Modern Mexico" is a study of change occurring through the cooperation of people and the support of their government. Students read about three groups living in or near Mexico City — the ejido farm community, the factory workers, and the government employees.

The Middle East describes four groups of people — two from the past and two living in modern times. These studies of people illustrate what causes people to change and what some of the effects of change are.

"The People of Ancient Mesopotamia" looks at two groups of people — a farming society that existed about 2000 years before the second society, an urban one. By examining the things archeologists have discovered, students learn how inferences can be made about the way people lived thousands of years ago. In "The People of Islam" students read how Muhammad and a new religion affected the traditions of Arab tribes. "The People of Syria" shows a village society and an urban society responding to an overthrow of the government. "The People of Israel" describes the various traditions and goals of the people who came together to build a new nation.

SUGGESTIONS FOR READING

The purpose of the student source books is to provide information for the students to discuss and think about. The material in these books is designed to accompany the learning activities in the teachers' guides. It is important that the students acquire enough information from the books to understand the topics being studied and to participate effectively.

The manner in which the information in the source books is obtained by the students might vary greatly. Each teacher will be able to decide the best procedure for a particular class or for particular students within the class. Some students prefer to read independently, some read well in groups, and others wish or need to be read to. The appropriate length of reading assignment and the amount of direction needed will differ from one individual to another. Some techniques that teachers of middle grade students have found helpful are:

> Students read aloud together in pairs, of which one is a strong reader.
>
> Students look at the pictures and follow along while the teacher or a student volunteer reads aloud.
>
> Several strong readers read the text silently, then talk about what they have read or answer questions raised by

the teacher and other students. (The role of the teacher is very important here because questions must be raised about any important aspects of the reading that the students fail to mention.)

Before the students begin reading, the teacher raises focusing questions that provide a guide for the students.

Students skim the information and then read it a second time to look for the answers to specific questions.

Several students read different sections of the book and share their information with the class.

HINTS TO THE TEACHER

1. When making a chart, be as creative as possible. Avoid using only the written word; substitute pictures or drawings when possible or appropriate. Information on the chart should be easy to see and read by the entire class.

2. A retrieval chart is not all-inclusive. It is merely a reminder to students of the facts they need as the teacher guides them toward inferences, generalizations, or the discovery of an important relationship. In some instances the charts students develop will be incomplete because of a lack of data. Students should be encouraged to accept this and to realize that they need not "invent" data to complete each chart.

3. Keep charts simple. Too many columns and too much data make the task of comparing and contrasting complex. Remind the students that they need not chart *all* the data they gather. Teachers recommend making a chart by first outlining it with the children on the chalkboard.

4. The teacher should feel free to vary the ways of organizing data. When a class retrieval chart is indicated in the guide, the teacher may wish to substitute individual charts. Or the information may be shown in panels, murals, or on bulletin boards. Appropriate material may be organized as table displays or in dioramas.

5. As charts are developed they should be kept. Many will be referred to throughout the year or compared with charts in later units.

6. *How* a student completes an assignment is not as important as the fact that he *does* complete it. Encourage any student who finds writing difficult to draw or tape-record his responses to an exercise. Teachers should feel free to make adaptations in activities according to their experience, keeping the purpose of the activity in mind.

7. It is not necessary for students to commit to memory the textual details or photographs of the student source book. They should be encouraged to review the book whenever they need information to answer a question.

8. The amount of time spent on a sequence or an activity will depend largely on the ability of the students to grasp the concepts involved.

9. The student source book may not have the answers to some of the questions raised by the students. In such instances the teacher should encourage students to refer to other sources.

10. When the situation permits, give students time to draw or jot down a note before giving an oral response. This helps them think independently, and the drawing or note can act as a guide for what they plan to say.

11. Whenever a resource person is invited to speak to the class, make sure he knows the focus toward which he should speak. This will help to insure a rich presentation and one related to class study.

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

After completing the program for *People in Change* the student should show the following behaviors:

✓ 1. *Developing concepts (listing, grouping, and labeling)*. Given access to appropriate materials, the student lists a number of items, then groups the items and assigns logically defensible and conceptually powerful (abstract) labels; and when requested, re-forms and re-labels the items in equally defensible ways. Examples of the kinds of items the students will list, group and label are: groups people belong to; objects found at archeological digs in Mesopotamia.

Rationale. Acquiring ability to list, group, and label is an important intermediate step in acquisition of other thinking skills and is considered a powerful intellectual skill in its own right because the curriculum is intended to facilitate the ability to develop more abstract concepts. Ability to regroup is regarded as an important component of intellectual flexibility.

✓ 2. *Making comparisons*. Given two or more different samples of information, the student correctly states differences and similarities. Examples of such comparisons are: different expectations that people have of their leaders; the different ways people reacted to Muhammad; similarities among legends explaining the origin of a people.

Rationale. Ability to make such comparisons is an important component of the thinking skills to be developed through this curriculum. It is also essential to development of higher level thinking skills, such as, the ability to form generalizations, state hypotheses, and make explanations of causes of human behavior.

✓ 3. *Indicating relationships*. Given two or more lists of information, or another body of organized data, the student indicates correctly which items in the first list are associated with the various items in the second list. The lists may be related to such matters as: needs people have and whom they depend on for those needs; the expectations of people of a country and the actions of their leaders; changes in cultures and the forces pushing for and against them; words of a song and the values indicated.

Rationale. The ability to determine such relationships is a prerequisite for developing other thinking skills, such as formation of generalizations, statement of hypotheses, development of explanations, and evaluation of evidence. It is necessary in any study of social phenomena that involves mental processes above the level of recall of information.

Skills ✓

4. *Developing generalizations*. Given a detailed set of facts, the student states valid generalizations that he had not been given previously, and, when asked, provides the sources and limitations of the generalizations. Examples of facts and acceptable generalizations based on them that students might state are:

Kinds of facts given	Examples of generalizations
Situations where a person helps a neighbor fight a fire, does a favor for a friend, and shares in the family chores.	People often help others so they can get help when they need it.
What things people in France and in England did that affected their leaders at the time of the Glorious and French Revolutions.	When leaders do not give the people what they need, the people try to replace them.
Descriptions of three men with different backgrounds who emigrate to Israel.	People who move to a new place hold on to their old ways.

Rationale. Ability to form generalizations is one of the skills that is emphasized in this curriculum and is important in relation to other thinking skills such as the formation of hypotheses. Making generalizations is also an important aspect of the development of attitudes.

5. *Applying generalizations*. Having had the opportunity to develop or acquire a generalization and given a situation to which the generalization applies, the student makes a statement or takes other action that, in the judgment of the teacher, represents defensible use of the generalization in analyzing or coping with the situation. For example: given exposure to the generalization that when people with different backgrounds come to live together, they adjust to each other's way of life; asked the question what will it be like in Israel in the year 2000, the student will make a statement such as, "The people will have adjusted to each other more and they will have a more similar way of life."

Rationale. Generalizations are of little use unless the student is able to apply them in his reasoning processes. Application of generalizations is also related to other thinking skills taught in this curriculum, such as the ability to make predictions, state hypotheses, test hypotheses, and make explanations.

6. *Asking pertinent questions.* Given an assertion or some information expressed in general terms and an assigned task of ascertaining the essential features, characteristics, or issues involved, the student states questions which get at these essential matters directly and provide a sound basis for analysis of the assertion or information. For example: if the students are asked to study the daily life of a village, they ask such questions as, "What work did the people do?" "How were the daily activities of the men, women, and children different?" "What do the people in the village value?"

Rationale. Skill in asking penetrating, pertinent questions is of great value in the study of social phenomena because through application of this skill the student quickly obtains the information needed, and only that needed, for study of the phenomena. It also is an important component of other thinking skills, such as abilities to define the problem of an inquiry, to make predictions, and to test hypotheses.

7. *Explaining cause-and-effect relationships.* Given a set of events (one of which is identified as the event to be explained) occurring in a social setting, the student gives a plausible and logically sound explanation of the chains of cause-and-effect relationships that resulted in the occurrence of the event. Examples of some things to be explained and some explanations by students that would be acceptable are:

Things to be explained	Example of explanation
The people of England and France at the time of the Glorious and French Revolutions replaced their kings.	The kings did not do what the people expected them to do, so they replaced them with people they thought would do what they wanted.

Rationale. Ability to explain cause-and-effect relationships is one of the subcategories of the general objective of thinking skills. This ability also has important uses in making predictions and forming hypotheses. It is assumed that the student has previously acquired the generalizations needed in making the explanation and that he has not previously studied the explanation he gives.

8. *Formulating hypotheses.* Given relevant facts about a situation, the student states logically sound, but informally worded, hypotheses (that he had not been previously given) about that situation today, in the past, or in the future. Ability to state hypotheses includes, but is not limited to, ability to predict future events on the basis of present conditions. Examples of given facts and of hypotheses that students might state are:

Kinds of facts given	Examples of hypotheses
Students read about the events and conditions of	People living under these conditions would want a

the Reign of Terror in in France in the 1790s.	leader who is strong and who can stop the killings and confusion.
Large graves at the site of Ur contained skeletons with jewelry, weapons, and other objects that were buried with the body.	The people who lived in Ur believed in another life after death.

Rationale. Ability to form hypotheses is part of the general objective of thinking skills and, of course, is essential for anyone who hopes to deal constructively with problems in social studies. One of the most important functions of hypotheses is to provide "focus" for thought processes. That is, they make it possible to narrow down the range of concerns so as to increase the likelihood of successfully coping with the problem being considered. One's thinking is likely to be unproductive if the problem is conceived too broadly or if an attempt is made to analyze too many kinds of facts in too many ways all at the same time.

9. *Exhibiting sensitivity to the feelings of others.* Given a discussion setting or other situation in which students can express their ideas without censure or ridicule, the student makes statements that describe what the teacher judges to be the probable feelings or thoughts of people studied. Statements indicative of the desired attitude are:

> "Claire wanted to go on the trip but she also wanted to stay for the party. She was confused because she didn't want to disappoint anyone."
>
> "Anna was scared; she wanted to go back to Herr Kohen's shop, but she was afraid of what might happen."
>
> "I think Diego is worried about what his family will do if the ejido goes broke."

Rationale. These kinds of behaviors represent an attitude of empathy. Such an attitude is important because it is part of the decentering process, that is, a step in the direction of overcoming the self-centeredness, which, according to Piaget and others, characterizes much behavior of the young child. Unless the child has empathy for the thoughts and feelings of others, he will have difficulty understanding and applying generalizations pertaining to cooperation and to resolution of conflicts among individuals and groups.

10. *Describing probable aspirations.* Given detailed information on activities and patterns of living in a society, the student makes what the teacher judges to be accurate descriptions (that have not been previously given) of the probable aspirations of individuals or groups in the society. An example of a description that a student might give is, "I think Daud wanted to keep as much of his old way of life as he could." or "I think Socrates wanted what he thought was best for Athens."

Rationale. Understanding the aspirations of people in a society is fundamental to understanding the nature of the society and to analyzing its problems. It also represents another instance of ability to perceive the thoughts and feelings of others as required in the process of decentering. It is, further, an important kind of hypothesizing.

11. *Accepting merits of different ways of living and points of view.* Given a situation in which he is encouraged to express his own thoughts, the student responds to statements of other students and the teacher in ways that the teacher judges to be fair toward the people involved, and that show recognition and acceptance of merits of different ways of life and points of view. He challenges derogatory or belittling statements about people of different cultures or about people who exhibit unusual behavior. Examples of desired statements are:

> "The way Joseph was taught to be an adult prepared him for the kind of life the Tiwis had."
>
> "The leaders of the Bedouin tribes were worried about Muhammad's teaching because it made the people less loyal to them."
>
> "The Mundurucú had to know a lot to get food in the old days."

Examples of statements the students will challenge are:

> "The ejido people aren't very smart working so hard."
>
> "The Maori were wild murderers."
>
> "Haim's ideas about the future of Israel weren't very realistic."

Rationale. The outcome sought here is sensitivity to, and acceptance of, cultural and personal differences that can perhaps best be conceptualized as the opposite of ethnocentrism. It is one of the major attitudinal goals of this curriculum.

12. *Conceptualizing one's own values.* Given a situation that encourages free expression, the student makes statements that describe his own values. Some illustrative statements are:

> "I think the president should be powerful enough to do his job but not so powerful that he does not have to listen to the people who elected him."
>
> "If I had to move to a new country I would like it to be a lot like it is here so I would not have to change very much."

Rationale. Ability to conceptualize one's own values is essential in order to identify inconsistencies in one's value system or to analyze relationships of one's own values to those of other people.

13. *Relating one's values to those of others.* Given information on the values of people in two or more cultures other than his own, the student describes differences and similarities in the values within and among the

cultures and their relationships to his own values. For example, a student might say,

> "The Kwakiutl showed how wealthy they were by destroying what they had or by giving it away. In our society we show how wealthy we are by collecting things and showing them off."

Rationale. Ability to relate one's own values to those of others is crucially important in any inquiry directed at clarification or resolution of value conflicts. This objective is an important corollary of Objective 2 — making comparisons.

14. *Stating assertions and questions that are "people-oriented."* When discussing various countries of the world the student makes assertions about or asks questions pertaining to people and how they live more often than about impersonal matters such as, the size, physical features, population, exports, or location of the countries.

Rationale. This objective reflects the fact that this curriculum is strongly "people-oriented." Physical features and other material characteristics of countries are treated but are considered important only to the extent that they affect the lives of people.

15. *Thinking autonomously.* Given discussion situations in which there is apparently rather general agreement on a particular line of reasoning, the student will occasionally make comments that represent significant departures from the trend and that are judged by the teacher to have some likelihood of leading to useful relationships or conclusions.

Rationale. The thinking skills stressed throughout the curriculum have a large component of autonomous thinking. Correctness of reasoning from given premises and conditions is necessary but usually not sufficient; independence and originality of thought are considered indispensable in the study of social problems.

16. *Expressing tentativeness and flexibility.* Given a context in which generalizations or explanations have been stated, the student occasionally suggests that additional evidence or a different line of reasoning might lead to changes in one or more of the generalizations or explanations and/or gives evidence that he recognizes the tentativeness of generalizations. Words indicative of tentativeness, such as, "often," "could be," "maybe," "sometimes," are used in suggesting or applying generalizations and in making comparisons.

Rationale. Tentativeness is an important characteristic of scientific reasoning in social studies or any other field of inquiry. Students should be helped to remain open to consideration of new data and fresh approaches.

17. *Comprehending concepts and generalizations.* The student indicates comprehension of the meaning of the Organizing Ideas and Contributing Ideas and concepts therein by giving illustrations and explaining meanings, and by other actions involving uses. In stating the explanations and descriptions, the student correctly uses factual information about one or

more of the peoples and environments studied. In addition, the student indicates comprehension of other ideas not encompassed in the Organizing Ideas or Contributing Ideas, but related to the Key Concepts. For example, one Key Concept is Cultural Change, and illustrative student statements that indicate comprehension of the concept are:

> "The society in which a person lives develops certain patterns of expected behavior. These patterns of expected behavior change as the society changes."
>
> "People expect their leaders to do certain things and when they do not do them, they try to remove them from power."

Rationale. One of the general objectives of this curriculum is acquisition of a broad base of knowledge. The generalizations around which the units are built are considered to represent powerful ideas having general acceptance in the various social science disciplines. This knowledge is considered important so that students can understand the world and themselves more adequately. It is used in this curriculum in developing thinking skills and attitudes referred to in other objectives.

18. *Attaining concepts.* Given experience with examples and nonexamples of a particular concept (which are identified as such), the student identifies other examples and nonexamples and states a definition for the concept which he has developed.

Rationale. The ability to master powerful concepts is an important one for students to acquire. In addition, there are certain concepts that are so important to this curriculum that it is crucial for students to have an understanding of them.

19. *Obtaining information from representational materials.* Given supplementary materials, such as pictures, films, filmstrips, books, and motion pictures, the student makes correct statements representing the detailed and important information that can be obtained from them pertaining to the society or societies currently being studied.

Rationale. The ability to obtain information from representational materials is a very useful skill for learning about man's activities and environment. It also represents a step toward development of more generalized observational skills including direct observation of objects in the environment and activities of members of a society.

20. *Using map skills.* Given a globe and maps of the regions inhabited by the various peoples studied, together with instructions to locate places where the peoples live and to determine directions and approximate distances from one point to another, the student performs the tasks as instructed, with errors rarely occurring.

Rationale. This is one of the abilities included in the chief contributory objective — that of skills. Because the content deals with features and comparisons of societies in many parts of the world, it is useful for students to be able to make effective use of maps and globes.

OUTLINE OF *PEOPLE IN CHANGE*

Canada, Australia, New Zealand

A Family in Toronto
The Kwakiutl of British Columbia
A Family in Yarramalong
The Tiwi of Australia
The Maori of New Zealand

Main Idea
Members of groups interact and depend on each other in a variety of ways.

Organizing Idea
People belong to different kinds of groups and depend on others in these groups; the reasons they depend on others vary.

Key Concepts
Cultural Change
Interdependence
Societal Control
Tradition
Values

Europe

People in Ancient Greece
People of the Glorious Revolution
People of the French Revolution
People of Nazi Germany

Main Idea
Government leaders affect and are affected by the actions and expectations of the people they govern.

Organizing Idea
The way in which people respond to a leader determines the extent to which the leader can maintain power.

Key Concepts
Power
Societal Control
Institution
Causality

Latin America

The Mundurucú of Brazil
The Incas of Peru
The Nabuco Family of Colonial Brazil
People of Modern Mexico

Main Idea
Change within a society may be the result of acceptance, compromise, or coercion.

Organizing Idea
Change in Latin America has been brought about both by force and through cooperation.

Key Concepts
Values
Power
Conflict
Causality

The Middle East

The People of Ancient Mesopotamia
The People of Islam
The People of Syria
The People of Israel

Main Idea
Any change in a society depends upon the nature and strength of the forces for and against it.

Organizing Idea
Changes that occurred in the Middle East came about as a result of many interacting forces.

Key Concepts
Tradition
Values
Conflict
Cultural Change

INTRODUCTION TO *THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE*

It is useful to think of curriculum as a system of teaching somebody something by some process. As such a system, it consists of the following elements: (1) the objectives to be attained; (2) the selection and organization of content; (3) the selection and organization of learning activities; (4) the formulation and organization of the teaching strategies to be employed; (5) the selection or development of evaluative measures to be used.

Differences in curriculum plans come from differences in the emphasis accorded each of these elements and in the degree to which there is consistency and balance among the elements. The curriculum pattern which forms the basis of THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE is unique in that it makes specific provision for all of the above mentioned elements and the interactions among them. THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE (1) addresses itself to multiple objectives and provides for the implementation of each; (2) employs criteria for selection and organization of content which emphasize the acquisition, understanding, and use of ideas and concepts rather than facts alone; (3) details appropriate learning activities; (4) specifies distinct teaching strategies; (5) provides for continual evaluation of student progress.

OBJECTIVES

THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE addresses itself to the attainment of objectives which fall into these categories: thinking; knowledge; attitudes, feelings, and values. In addition is the contributory objective—academic and social skills—deemed necessary to attain the three prior objectives.

It is obvious that the objectives listed above are much too general to be implemented effectively in the classroom, since they do not indicate precisely what students are expected to accomplish. Therefore, precisely stated behavioral objectives are presented in the Introduction to this book.

Thinking

Current curriculum theory, supported by a considerable amount of research, assumes that thinking is learned; that it is learned developmentally, and that thinking skills can be taught systematically. The concept of cognitive strategies was developed by Hilda Taba as one means of implementing these assumptions. Basic cognitive tasks were identified; logical sequences of questions were then designed to promote the performance of certain of these tasks. The four cognitive tasks for which teaching strategies are provided in THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE are:

1. *Developing concepts*, in which students list, group, and regroup a number of items and then label the groups.

2. *Attaining concepts,* in which students are given a concept word, are presented with a series of examples and non-examples of the concept, and then attempt a definition of the concept word.

3. *Developing generalizations,* in which students make inferences and generalize about the relationships they observe among various kinds of data.

4. *Applying generalizations,* in which students are asked to apply previously learned generalizations and facts to predict what might logically occur in a new situation.

Knowledge

2.1

This category has been subdivided into three levels of knowledge: Key Concepts; Main, Organizing, and Contributing Ideas; and specific factual examples, or content samples.

1. *Key Concepts* are words which represent highly generalized abstractions. These words were selected because of their power to organize and synthesize large numbers of specific facts and ideas. For this reason, the Key Concepts can be developed in an increasingly more complex and abstract manner from grade to grade. The Key Concepts not only suggest the Main and Organizing Ideas around which the units are developed, but they also form threads which run throughout THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE.

2. *Main Ideas* are expressed in the form of sentences and usually state a relationship among two or more concepts. Each unit centers around at least one Main Idea and Organizing Idea. The *Organizing Idea* is a statement of the Main Idea as it pertains to the particular content being studied in the unit. *Contributing Ideas* represent generalizations that illustrate further dimensions of the Main Idea.

3. *Content samples* provide the means of illustrating, explaining, and developing the Main, Organizing, and Contributing Ideas. Each content sample is in the form of an in-depth study of human behavior and consists of a variety of specific details or facts about that behavior.

Attitudes, Feelings, and Values

4.1

This category emphasizes helping students to develop their own values and to analyze and understand the values of others. The three tasks in the area of affective development for which teaching strategies are provided are:

1. *Exploring feelings,* in which students are asked to identify how they think individuals placed in emotional situations feel, and then to make inferences about their own and other people's feelings in similar situations and, if appropriate, to generalize about feelings of people in general.

2. *Interpersonal problem solving*, in which students are presented with a problem situation involving interpersonal conflict, and asked to analyze what the protagonist(s) should do, to compare with similar situations in their own lives, and to evaluate whether what was done in each situation was good or bad, and why.

3. *Analyzing values*, in which students are asked to recall certain behaviors, infer as to the values involved, and explain how those values differ (if at all) from the values of other people in analogous situations.

Academic and Social Skills

This category includes a number of skills necessary for students to possess in order to acquire the more essential objectives listed above. These skills include academic skills such as the ability to read and interpret photographs, maps, charts, and graphs; to interpret time lines; to take notes and to outline; to use multiple references; to read widely but also selectively; to collect data from a variety of sources; to ask appropriate questions; to organize information; to formulate reasonable hypotheses. Social skills include the ability to plan jointly; to participate productively in discussions; to develop ideas through interaction with others; to respond courteously to others' queries; to work jointly on group investigations.

CONTENT

Each of the three levels of knowledge serves a different function in the organization of the units that make up the program for a given year.

Key Concepts

It is not expected that any of the Key Concepts will be developed fully in any one unit or even at any one grade level; they must be dealt with on all grade levels. The concepts must be visualized as threads which appear over and over again in a spiral which is always moving to a higher level. As the student's experience broadens and his intellectual capacities develop, he is provided with repeated opportunities in a variety of contexts to develop an increasingly sophisticated understanding of the Key Concepts. The sentences following each concept word provide illustrations of the way the word is used in THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE.

Causality

Events often can be made meaningful through a study of their antecedents. Hence, to some extent, future events can be predicted.

Events rarely have a single cause, but rather result from a number of antecedents impinging on one another in a given segment of time and space.

Conflict

Interaction among individuals or groups frequently results in hostile encounters or struggles. Conflict is characteristic of the growth and development of individuals and of civilization as a whole.

There are culturally approved and disapproved means for resolving all varieties of conflicts. Irrational conflict is reduced by recognition of the inevitability of differences and of the difficulty of determining their relative value. In most situations, some form of compromise is necessary because of the serious consequences of sustained conflict.

Cultural Change

Cultures never remain static, although the context of change (economic, political, social, and technological), the speed of change, and the importance of change vary greatly.

Cultural change is accelerated by such factors as increased knowledge, mobility, and communication, operating both within and between cultures.

Differences

The physical, social, and biological worlds (including human beings and their institutions) show extreme variation. Survival of any species depends on these differences.

Conflicts and inequities often result from assigning value to particular categories of differences, such as skin color or high intelligence.

Institutions

Societies develop complexes of norms and roles which guide their people toward the satisfaction of needs. These complexes of norms and roles define proper and expected behavior.

Social institutions include organizations such as the family, and perform an important function in socializing the individual and establishing his status. Political institutions include rules and laws and serve to maintain order, to compel obedience to existing authority systems, and to provide the means for change in such systems. Economic institutions are organized around the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services, and provide for the material needs of society members.

Interdependence

All persons and groups of persons depend on other persons and groups in important ways. These effects on others are often indirect and not apparent.

The solution of important human problems requires human beings to engage in joint effort. The more complex the society is, the more cooperation is required.

Cooperation often requires compromise and postponement of immediate satisfactions.

Modification

As man interacts with his physical and social environment, both he and the environment are changed.

Man has often exploited his physical environment to his own detriment.

Power

Individuals and groups vary as to the amount of influence they can exert in making and carrying out decisions which affect people's lives significantly.

As a strong motivating factor in individual and group action, the desire for power often leads to conflict.

Societal Control

All societies influence and attempt to mold the conduct or behaviors of their members. The techniques used include precept, example, and systems of reward and punishment; the specifics of these techniques vary greatly from one society to another. Written laws are an attempt to clarify the rules by which society operates and to promote impartial treatment of its members.

Marked differences in child-rearing practices often exist among societies.

Everyone belongs to many groups with overlapping membership, different purposes, and often conflicting demands on members in terms of duties, responsibilities, and rights; each, by exerting social controls, shapes the personality structures and behaviors of its members.

Tradition

Societies and the groups and individuals within them tend to retain many traditional values, attitudes, and ways of living and dealing with current problems, whether or not that behavior is appropriate.

Certain institutions in societies, such as family, religion, and education, tend to change less rapidly than do other elements of societies.

Values

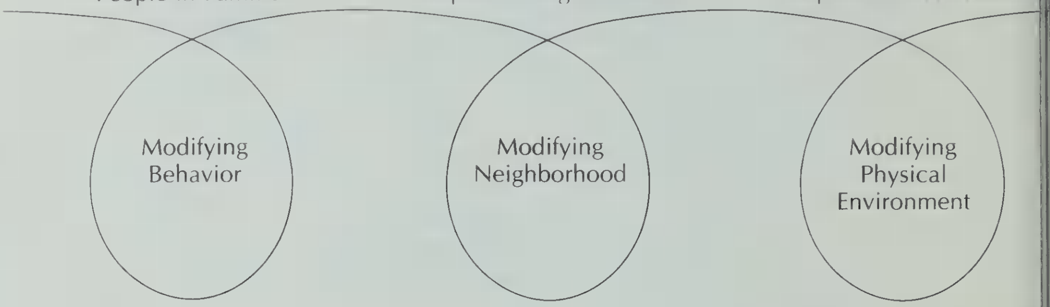
Those objects, behaviors, ideas, or institutions which a society or an individual considers important constitute values.

Whether or not a person holds a value can be inferred by others only on the basis of an extensive sample of his behavior.

Societies and individuals often differ significantly in the values they hold.

THE SPIRAL DEVELOPMENT OF A KEY CONCEPT

Key Concept: Modification (change of behavior or environment)



Title	Grade 1 People in Families	Grade 2 People in Neighborhoods	Grade 3 People in Communities
Content Focus	Modifying Behavior	Modifying Neighborhood	Modifying Physical Environment
Main Idea	People modify their environment and their behavior in order to fulfill certain of their basic and social needs.	The experiences and activities of people in a neighborhood are shaped by the character of that neighborhood, by its setting and density.	Interaction between people and their physical environment influences the ways in which they meet their needs.

Values develop through both nonrational and rational processes.

The survival of a society is dependent upon agreement on some core of values by a majority of its members. The greater the variety of values within a society, the greater the likelihood of disagreement and conflict; in some societies such conflict is accepted as necessary to the realization of core values.

[illegible] 1

The above chart illustrates the Taba curriculum design. Factual content is used to develop Main Ideas which in turn contribute to the spiral growth of Key Concepts.

Eleven Key Concepts appear as threads of continuity throughout the program. These concepts are developed spirally, appearing in different contexts, and at different degrees of complexity. They may not receive equal emphasis in any one year, but in the total program, each concept is developed consistently.

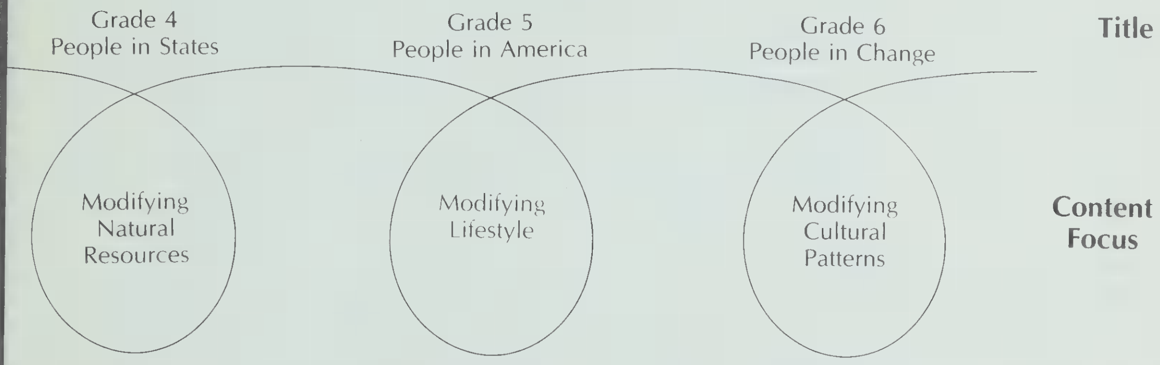
Main and Organizing Ideas

(1) 3.1

Each year's work in THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE centers around several Main Ideas. In a sense, the Main Idea serves as the answer to the question, "What do you hope the students will remember after they have forgotten many of the specific facts they may learn?" A Main Idea may be treated in hierarchic fashion and may reappear at several grade levels, although it is likely to be expressed differently each time and to cover a greater range of human behavior at each successive level.

(2) 3.1.a

The Main Idea expresses a relationship which applies not only to the content being studied, but also to parallel examples of human behavior from other



Main Idea

The significance of a region's resources is related to the culture of the people of that region.

Change in one aspect of life is accompanied by change in others. When change occurs some factors of life remain constant.

Change within a society may be the result of acceptance, compromise, or coercion.

settings. The Organizing Idea is an example of the relationship stated in the Main Idea around which the particular content sample and the learning activities are organized. It is stated in terms students might be expected to use and understand.

Given content which has been selected for its appropriateness to the Main Idea, and questions which have been chosen for effectiveness in directing thinking toward the Main Idea and the Organizing Idea, many students will move toward those ideas—and some will express their essence in a modified form. A student's expression of the ideas should stem from *his own thinking* about the data presented, and should be stated in *his own words*.

Content Samples

The chief function of specific facts is to explain, illustrate, and develop Main Ideas. The main criterion for selecting specific facts is that they be a sufficiently adequate demonstration of the Main Idea to provide students with opportunities to develop rational generalizations which approximate Main or Organizing Ideas. Since several different samplings of specific facts can be used equally well to develop the same generalization, decisions must be made as to which sets of specific data will be used. Thus, specific knowledge is sampled and used to develop ideas—rather than simply covered.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

The means for attaining two of the objectives of THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE are provided by the selection and organization of learning activities rather than by choice of content. Because the learning activities play such an important role, they are developed in detail, organized in sequence, and numbered for order. The learning activities within each unit of study involve rotation of intake, organization, and interpretation of data, while providing the students with the opportunities to apply previously learned knowledge and skills.

The Opener is designed to prepare both the teacher and the students for the Main Idea to be developed. It may provide diagnostic evidence for the teacher as to what concepts the students can handle, the nature of their previous understandings and experiences, and their attitudes. The Opener may also function as a transition from one Main Idea to the next, provide an opportunity to practice the skills of concept development, or give the students a chance to hypothesize.

Following the Opener, and constituting the major bulk of the unit, are learning activities organized into sequences. These activities are designed to develop various aspects of the desired learnings—to provide the needed factual material, to produce the desired academic and group skills, and to develop thinking skills. These activities also allow for organized individual study, for committee work, and for planning ways of exchanging information. Within the learning activities are opportunities for dealing with attitudes, feelings, and values.

The Conclusion is not a unit culmination, nor is it a summary in the usual sense. It serves to consolidate learnings rather than to review them. At this time the students should be able to formulate some general summarizing statement. They will do this with the help of questions that direct them to consolidate their thoughts on what they have studied. They will also be asked to check their conclusions against the data from which they were derived (to see if they are compatible). Some students will have had experiences that justify their making statements that approximate the Main Idea rather than limiting their generalizations to the level of the Organizing Idea. Concluding activities also often include tasks which require students to apply what was learned to a new situation by new means of expression. Whatever its form, the Conclusion should insure that learnings are internalized by the students.

TEACHING STRATEGIES

There are seven major teaching strategies provided in THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE. The cognitive tasks involved are: (1) developing concepts; (2) attaining concepts; (3) developing generalizations; (4) applying generalizations. The affective tasks involved are: (5) exploring feelings; (6) interpersonal problem solving; (7) analyzing values. Following the explanation of the strategies are suggestions regarding questioning procedures and skill development.

Developing Concepts

This strategy is aimed at establishing a firm basis for the later development of generalizations. The concepts involved are the building blocks for these generalizations.

Concepts are formed as students respond to questions that require them (1) to enumerate items; (2) to find a basis for grouping items that are similar in some respect; (3) to identify the common characteristics of items in a group, and so label the groups and, if necessary, to subsume other items they have enumerated under those labels; (4) to regroup and relabel items as they see ways in which this could be done. As illustrated by the chart, the teaching strategy consists of sequentially ordered questions designed to elicit a specific sequence of overt activities from the students.

It is important that the students perform the operations for themselves. The students should see the relationships between items in their own way, figure out a basis on which to group items, and devise the categories or labels for the groups. On rare occasions, the teacher might, if other methods fail, offer an alternative way of grouping items or even suggest that a list of items be extended. The important thing to aim for is a climate in which the teacher's suggestion is given no more status than that of the students', but is simply offered as another alternative to be considered. Any further stimulus provided should be to help students move as far as their current level of thinking will allow them.

It is also important for the students to discover that any item has many different characteristics and can therefore be grouped in many different ways. Each of the characteristics which an item possesses can be used as a basis for

Developing Concepts

Teacher	Student	Teacher follow-through
What do you see (notice, find) here?	Gives items.	Makes sure items are accessible to all students. For example: Chalkboard list Transparency list Individual lists Pictures Item cards
Do any of these items seem to belong together?	Finds some similarity as a basis for grouping items.	Communicates grouping. For example: Underlines in colored chalk. Marks with symbols. Arranges pictures or cards.
Why would you group them together?*	Identifies and verbalizes the common characteristics of items in a group.	Seeks clarification of responses when necessary.
What would you call these groups you have formed?	Verbalizes a label (perhaps more than one word) that appropriately encompasses all items.	Records.
Could some of these belong in more than one group?	States different relationships.	Records.
Can we put these same items in different groups?† Why would you group them that way?	States additional different relationships.	Communicates grouping.

**Sometimes you may ask the same child "why" when he offers the grouping, and other times you may wish to get many groups before considering "why" things are grouped together.*

†Although this step is important because it encourages flexibility, it will not be appropriate on all occasions.

grouping. In the course of grouping items, the students' suggestions and questions will reveal how sharply relationships are perceived.

In most cases, the concepts thus formed will not be new to individual students; they will have used each concept label before in some form or another and therefore have known at least some of its components. But by going through this process the dimensions of the concept will become enlarged and its meaning precisely delineated.

Attaining Concepts

The principal difference between this strategy and the preceding one lies in the degree of control exercised over the outcome. The concept attainment strategy is often used at that point in a unit where some common word meanings are necessary prerequisites for the clear differentiation of ways of living, attitudes, aspirations, and the like. In the case of concept attainment, the students are first given a concept word to say and recognize in its printed form. Then they are presented with a series of examples and non-examples. The students are then tested by being asked to identify an example of the concept among a mixed group of examples and non-examples. In both this strategy and the preceding one the students are expected to discover relationships among a group of items. However, in developing concepts the selection is *student controlled*, in that students group according to their own judgment about what goes together and how the groups they thus form should be labeled, whereas in attaining concepts the *teacher provides* the label and the students' task is to discover what common elements link together the various objects that are called by the same name.

In some cases it will be desirable to use the next-to-last step of this strategy first so as to check on the degree of precision with which children identify

Attaining Concepts

Teacher	Student	Teacher follow-through
Say this word after me . . .	Repeats word.	Makes sure the word is pronounced correctly.
This is an . . .	Looks at object, listens to description.	Checks for any who may not be able to see or hear.
This is also an . . .	Gives, or reads statements which are illustrative examples of the concept.	
This is not an . . .	Looks at new object, or listens to new description, or reads statements which are not examples of the concept (but which may be similar, in similar form, etc.)	Checks again.
Show me an . . . or Tell me what you think an . . . is or Which of these describes an . . . or Is this an . . .	Points to object. Defines the concept. Selects from one or more descriptions	Shows additional objects or gives fresh descriptions to test.
Asks: How then would you define an . . .	Gives summary generalization (definition) of concept.	Has students write down their definitions. Checks for accuracy.

examples of a concept word to which they already respond. Once this check has been made, the teacher can decide whether or not it is necessary to go back to steps 2, 3, and 4 in order to refine meanings, and thus to use the total strategy.

Developing Generalizations

Generalizations, like concepts, are the end products of a process of abstracting from a group of items those elements or characteristics the items share, and expressing recognition of this commonality in a way that is convincing. The major difference between concepts and generalizations is that generalizations are here taken as a higher level of thinking than concepts in that they are a statement of relationships among two or more concepts.

This strategy involves three main steps: (1) looking at similar aspects of selected samples with the same questions in mind for each; (2) explaining what is seen; (3) arriving at generalizations by interpreting meaning from the similarities and differences identified in step 2.

Generalizations and the generalizing process are among the most important elements in THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE. Every opportunity should be used to have students generalize about the material and to relate these generalizations to other shared and personal experiences. Given the opportunity to generalize in an atmosphere in which interpretations and inferences are freely encouraged without risk of censure for "wrong" answers, students will be likely to start thinking about relationships among various elements of their everyday experience and the meanings embedded in them. They should be encouraged to check interpretations and inferences against data to qualify their generalizations appropriately, and to show through the tentativeness of their statements how clearly they recognize the limitations of the data they have studied. Without these steps being taken, social science

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Developing Generalizations

Teacher	Student	Teacher follow-through
What did you notice? See? Find? What differences did you notice (with reference to a particular question)?	Gives items.	Makes sure items are accessible. For example: Chalkboard list Transparency list Individual lists Pictures Item cards Choose the items to pursue.
Why do you think this happened? or How do you account for these differences?	Gives explanation which may be based on factual information and/or inferences.	Accepts explanation. Seeks clarification if necessary.
What does this tell you about . . . (e.g., the way people behave)?	Gives generalization	Encourages variety of generalizations, and seeks clarification where necessary.

This pattern of inviting reasons to account for observed phenomena and generalizing beyond the data is repeated and expanded to include more and more aspects of the data and to reach more abstract generalizations.

education can become an oversimplified listing of answers rather than a rigorous and never-ending search for them.

Applying Generalizations

When students generalize from given data they are demonstrating an ability to take meaning from these data, but it is not until they show that they are able to apply such generalizations to a new situation—i.e., one that is different in form but not in substance from the ones they have studied—that there will be evidence of the transferability of their newly found knowledge.

This strategy typically occurs at the end of a sequence, at a point when students are already familiar with the facts and have developed generalizations that can be used with the questions which are required by this task. In essence, the students need to use what they already know, but in the conditional form (if so-and-so), in order to hypothesize about the consequences (then so-and-so).

The first step in this strategy is to predict and to hypothesize. This is usually done in response to a question. The setting for such a prediction may be one which is a slight variation on the theme under study, or it may be a situation paralleling that which has just been studied. In historical cases the students will have the valuable experience of later checking their predictions against what did happen and of thinking about the reasons for any discrepancies; such discrepancies can help reinforce an appreciation of the hazards of predictions and the value of tentativeness and intellectual humility.

The second step is that of explaining or supporting predictions or hypotheses by determining the causal links the students see between the condition and the prediction. This may be done by reasoning from concrete facts or by logical processes. This step is generated by questions such as, "Why would (so-and-so) happen?" or "What makes you think so?"

Applying Generalizations

Teacher	Student	Teacher follow-through
Suppose that . . . (a particular event occurred given certain conditions), what would happen?	Makes inferences.	Encourages additional inference. Selects inference(s) to develop.
What makes you think that would happen?	States explanation, identifies relationships.	Accepts explanation and seeks clarification if necessary.
What would be needed for that to happen?	Identifies facts necessary to a particular inference.	Decides whether these facts are sufficient and could be assumed to be present in the given situation.
Can someone give a different idea about what would happen?	States new inferences that differ in some respects from preceding ones.	Encourages alternative inferences, requests explanations and necessary conditions. Seeks clarification where necessary.
If, as one of you predicted, such-and-such happened, what do you think would happen after that?	Makes inferences related to the given inference.	Encourages additional inferences and selects those to pursue further.

This pattern of inviting inferences, requiring explanations, identifying necessary conditions, and encouraging divergent views is continued until the teacher decides to terminate the activity.

The third step is that of verifying the prediction or hypothesis by checking its probability and universality. This involves logical reasoning and checking predictions against actual events.

This process of hypothesizing and predicting consequences via the application of known facts and generalizations invites a greater degree of divergent thinking than do either of the previously described strategies. This strategy therefore offers greater opportunities for creative use of knowledge. There is the possibility of generating a variety of lines of prediction. Unless the teacher is aware of the multiple possibilities in this situation, the discussion could be limited to the most obvious possibilities by failing to encourage out-of-the-way predictions. This could suppress incipient creative ideas.

Exploring Feelings

In this strategy students are encouraged to: (1) make inferences as to how other people feel and why; (2) recognize the variety of possible emotional reactions to a given circumstance; (3) relate what happens to other persons (or groups) to emotional experiences they themselves have had; (4) explore reasons for their own emotional reactions. It is anticipated that children will experience emotional reactions as they recall events in their own lives and see parallels with the experiences of others. It is therefore imperative to the proper

Exploring Feelings

Teacher	Student	Teacher follow-through
What happened?	Restates facts.	Sees that all facts are given and agreed upon. If students make inferences, ask that they be set aside temporarily.
How do you think . . . felt?*	Makes inference as to feelings.	Accepts inference.
Why do you think he would feel that way?	Explains.	Seeks clarification, if necessary.
Who has a different idea about how he felt?	Makes alternative inferences and explanations.	Seeks variety, if necessary. Asks for reasons, if necessary.
How did . . . (other persons in the situation) feel?	States inference about the feelings of additional persons.	Seeks clarification, if necessary. Encourages students to consider how other people in the situation felt.
Have you ever had something like this happen to you?†	Describes similar event in his own life.	Ensures description of event.
How did you feel?*	Describes his feelings, may re-experience emotions.	Seeks clarification, if necessary. Provides support if necessary.
Why do you think you felt that way?	Offers explanation. Attempts to relate his feelings to events he has recalled.	Asks additional questions, if necessary, to get beyond stereotyped or superficial explanation.

*These questions are repeated in sequence several times in order to obtain a variety of inferences and personal experiences.

†If students have difficulty responding, you may wish to ask, "If this should happen to you, how do you think you would feel?" or "Has something like this happened to someone you know?" Another useful device may be for the teacher to describe such an event in his own life.

handling of this strategy that the teacher provide support where necessary, establish a sufficiently relaxed atmosphere for pupils to feel comfortable in such discussions, and be alert to the possibility of overly anxious reactions on the part of individual students.

Interpersonal Problem Solving

In this strategy students are presented with a problem situation involving conflict among persons or groups and are required to: (1) propose and defend solutions; (2) relate the events to similar experiences they have had; (3) evaluate the way of handling the recalled problem and consider various alternatives they might have followed.

It is particularly important that students become seriously involved in the issues raised rather than simply giving what they consider to be acceptable or "good" answers. "Good" answers are particularly likely when students are asked to evaluate their own (recalled) behavior. For this reason, it is crucial that the teacher refrain from judgmental reactions and accept any response

Interpersonal Problem Solving

Teacher	Student	Teacher follow-through
What happend? or What did . . . do?	Describes events.	Sees that all events are given. Tries to get agreement or, if not possible, a clear statement of differences in perception of what occurred.
What do you think . . . (a protagonist) should do? Why?	Gives response.	Accepts response; seeks clarification where necessary.
How do you think . . . (others) would react if he did that? Why?	Makes inference and explains.	Accepts. Seeks clarification, if necessary.
Has something like that ever happened to you?*	Relates similar event in his life.	Provides support, if necessary.
What did you do?†	Relates recalled behavior.	Seeks clarification, if necessary.
As you think back now, do you think that was a good or bad thing to do?	Judges past actions.	Encourages student to judge his *own* past actions. The teacher may need to prevent others from entering the discussion at this point.
Why do you think so?	States reasons.	Accepts reasons. If necessary, asks additional questions to make clear the criteria or values which the student is using in judging his actions.
Is there anything you could have done differently?	Offers alternative behavior.	Accepts. Asks additional questions to point up inconsistencies where they occur, e.g., "How does that agree with reasons you gave earlier?"

*If students have difficulty responding, you may wish to ask, "If this should happen to you, how do you think you would feel?" or "Has something like this happened to someone you know?" Another useful device is for the teacher to describe such an event in his own life.

†These questions are repeated in sequence several times in order to obtain a variety of responses.

at face value while encouraging the student(s) to consider its consequences, again without judging the actions.

One danger with this strategy is that students may tend to engage in excessive judging of their own (or others') actions without progressing to the stage of exploring the criteria and values implicit in their judgment and of considering alternatives. This tendency may be counteracted by dissuading students from judging the actions of others and by moving the discussion to succeeding questions. In due course they will be able to judge their own and others' behavior against carefully assembled criteria.

Analyzing Values

In this strategy students are asked first to recall information about specified behavior on the part of an individual or group. They are then asked to explain why they think such behavior occurs. The next step requires students to infer what values are implicit in the behavior. This process is repeated for other groups or individuals.

The next step requires individual students to hypothesize about their own behavior and values. The last step requires comparisons among the various values which have been discussed. In this way students are encouraged to become aware of the variety of values people have and how they relate to their own values, thereby gaining more insight into those values. It is worth stressing that the final steps in the strategy are critical ones in helping young people to learn more of the nature and causes of human behavior.

Analyzing Values

Teacher	Student	Teacher follow-through
What did they do . . . (with reference to some matter)?	Describes behavior.	Sees that description is complete and accurate.
What do you think were their reasons for doing/saying what they did?	States inferences.	Accepts. Seeks clarification, if necessary.
What do these reasons tell you about what is important to them?*	States inferences regarding values.	Restates or asks additional questions to ensure focus on values.
If you . . . (teacher specifies similar situations directly related to student, e.g., "If you accidentally tore a page in someone else's book") what would you do? Why?†	States behavior and gives explanation.	Accepts, may seek clarification.
What does this show about what *you* think is important?	States inferences about his own values.	Accepts. Seeks clarification, if necessary.
What differences do you see in what all these people think is important?	Makes comparisons.	Ensures that all values identified are compared.

*This sequence is repeated for each group or person whose values are to be analyzed. Each group is specified by the teacher and has been previously studied.

†This sequence is repeated in order to get reactions from several students.

QUESTIONING PROCEDURES

Asking good questions is one of the most effective tools a teacher has to work toward the objective of developing students' thinking skills. Since the strategy for Developing Generalizations is the most frequently used, it will be used here to illustrate some of the most important points about asking good questions. The *opening question* in a Developing Generalizations sequence should have two characteristics: (1) it should be an open question; (2) it should set the focus for the discussion. A question such as, "What will we talk about today?" is too open, while a question such as, "What was the carpenter using to pound nails into boards?" has too narrow a focus for an initial question and allows only one child to respond. "What did you notice about the new home we saw being built yesterday?" meets the criterion of balance between openness and focus.

At the second step in Developing Generalizations, students are expected to look for relationships among data. The teacher must ask *lifting questions* in an attempt to bring the discussion up to this more general level. Questions such as, "What *seems* to be reflected in this?" or "What do you *think* made these people do these things?" or "What *might* be the results of this?" are preferable to "What made these people do these things?" in that they tend to elicit more qualified statements from students. Once the discussion has been lifted to a higher level, other students should be encouraged to come in at the same level by giving additional examples, agreeing or disagreeing with the points made, or adding a qualifying dimension to the earlier contribution.

Supporting questions call for clarification, extension, and synthesis of ideas, as well as providing for participation, flexibility, and emotional support of individuals. To help clarify an abstract term that has been used by one student and reduce it to a more specific term that can be understood by the whole class, the teacher should ask questions such as, "Could you give me an example?" or "Could you tell us a little more about what you have in mind?" The teacher who sees the need for synthesizing a number of ideas in a discussion might ask, "Can you put that into fewer words?" or "Can you do something about that rather long response?"

Another role, usually assumed by the teacher, but sometimes by the students when there is a good climate in the classroom, is that of offering support to a member of the class. This is the kind of support one gives to a student who is being attacked by other students, or to a student whose offering has been rejected, or whose responses are marked by a characteristic uncertainty and inarticulateness. A student who gives incorrect information is also usually in need of support. In this case, the teacher should assume the role of supporter by helping the student arrive at a correction.

Students often change the focus of a topic by adding a new dimension. In this case, the teacher can support the student and control the process of the discussion at the same time by saying, "John has another idea. Let's talk about it for a bit." When a student suggests a new dimension, the teacher must quickly assess whether the majority of the class is ready to move in this new direction. If, as the discussion continues, the students' responses refer to an earlier question, the teacher may be assured that the focus has been changed too quickly. If the teacher feels that the class is not ready to move to a new dimension, the student who initiated the change should be encouraged to raise his point at a later time. Then the teacher should make certain that the student is given an opportunity to do so, or a brush-off will be recognized, and the student will tend to avoid offering any further suggestions.

An *extending question* is one kind of supporting question the teacher can ask to prevent a premature change of focus. To keep the discussion at the same level and to broaden participation, the teacher can ask the students to give examples of something someone else has said. Often the students who rarely initiate new dimensions of a topic can extend the thinking of others.

SKILL DEVELOPMENT

THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE provides students with systematic opportunities in practical situations for developing a variety of academic and social skills. Students are helped to read selectively, to take notes, to interpret and create maps, and to read and make time lines, pictures, and charts. Students are also provided opportunities to work in committees, to engage in group research, and to participate in class discussions. Many opportunities also exist for learning to ask relevant questions, to organize information, and to develop individual and group plans for solving a variety of problems.

The skills described are too complex to be acquired at once. They must be sequentially developed through each year's program. Special consideration must be given to the varying abilities among students within a particular class, as well as the degree of readiness which can be expected. Thus, systematic provision for a variety of incremental learnings within different levels of attainment must be provided if all students are to be sufficiently challenged.

This curriculum provides such systematic incremental opportunities for the development of skills. The particular significance of map skills for social science education makes it appropriate that this area be used for illustration. The chart on the next page demonstrates the sequential development of map skills in the program. Similar sequential steps are followed in the development of other skills. For example, note taking begins in the first grade with simple charts, such as "things families need." Note-taking skills then progress in complexity as pupils organize information from several sources. Eventually students are expected to develop complex charts, prepare detailed outlines, interpret bar and graph statistics, and prepare critical reviews and reports.

In the development of social skills especially, class organization is an important consideration. Different types of tasks require different types of organization (e.g., whether the class should work as a whole, in small groups of threes and fours, in pairs, or as individuals). In general, tasks that require the development of procedures, ideas, or standards are most effectively accomplished by interaction of the whole class. Tasks which require that varied materials be covered by the same procedure can usually be done more economically through parallel study by small groups. Tasks which require a specific piece of research, such as analyzing a set of data or expressing ideas in writing, can best be accomplished individually.

At the outset of instruction, it is usually advantageous to work with the class as a whole. Working procedures can be established to provide the total group with a common understanding of what is expected and how it should be done.

MAP SKILLS AND UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE

	Readiness	Grade 1			
		Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
DIRECTION–LOCATION					
Maps show location (Understanding)	●	●	●	●	●
Trace routes		●			
Use grid					●
Use cardinal directions					●
Use compass					
Find political divisions					
Maps show distribution (Understanding)					
Find land masses					
Use intermediate directions					
Use latitude and longitude					
SCALE					
Globe is a scale of earth (Understanding)	●	●	●	●	●
Maps represent earth's surface (Understanding)	●	●	●	●	●
Maps have established scales (Understanding)					
Use scale of miles					
SYMBOLS					
Globe is a symbol of earth (Understanding)	●	●	●	●	●
Map symbols represent real things (Understanding)	●	●	●	●	●
Interpret color symbols	●	●	●	●	●
Interpret pictorial symbols		●	●	●	●
Compare maps and pictures		●	●	●	●
Interpret abstract symbols					
Use legend					
Interpret political maps					
Compare map symbols				●	●
Different symbols can show same things (Understanding)					
PROJECTION					
Maps show earth's resources (Understanding)					
Maps project land use (Understanding)					
Compare areas for physical resources					
Trace migration routes					
Compare climatic regions					
Make inferences from comparisons					
Maps show earth's topography (Understanding)					
Compare relief maps and pictures					

When these procedures have been established, the class can then be broken down into small working groups.

Working in small groups offers distinct advantages. In small-group work, students have a greater opportunity for interaction and participation as well as a chance to assume more responsibilities. There is valuable "talking time" in

Grade 2				Grade 3				Grade 4				Grade 5	Grade 6
Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4		
●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
●	●					●						●	●
●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
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which students can clarify the meaning of various concepts and generalizations which they and their classmates use. Opportunities exist for students to challenge and correct one another.

Another advantage of small-group work is that it provides a means by which more content can be covered efficiently and in depth. Furthermore, working in small groups affords many opportunities for teachers to deal with individual differences, since it frees the teacher from having to treat the class as a single group. Small-group settings give teachers a greater opportunity to listen, to observe, and to tailor responsibilities to meet unique student needs, interests, and abilities.

Following are some additional and more specific suggestions for class organization:

1. Work through one example with the total class to establish working procedures before starting committee work.
2. Start one small group at a time if the class lacks experience in group work.
3. Give each group responsibility for a different content area but, if at all possible, ask them to study the same questions.
4. Arrange for an exchange of information through presentations (using charts, slides, etc., or dramatizations) from each group to the entire class or through discussions whose topics cut across all the content samples studied. Lengthy reports should be avoided.
5. Help the class to organize the information from each group.
6. Provide opportunities by which the information which groups exchanged can be compared and contrasted, and inferences drawn.
7. Provide for a variety of ability and skill levels in each group.
8. See that each pupil has new experiences both in areas where he lacks strength and where he is skilled.
9. Change group membership periodically.
10. See that every group possesses both leaders and followers.
11. Recognize that several groups may need the particular skill of a floating group member.

EVALUATION OF STUDENT PROGRESS

Carefully constructed tests, check lists, observation schedules, and the like are crucial in helping teachers maintain a consistent emphasis on the important objectives of any instructional program. Detailed evaluation exercises are built into the curriculum for THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE. These evaluations provide an objective and effective means of assessing the progress of the students as demonstrated by their responses to the questions in the strategies, and by their work in creating murals, reading maps and graphs, role playing and dramatizing, and summarizing.

It is advisable to keep the results of the evaluation exercises throughout the year's course of study. By keeping these records it becomes possible to assess: the relative status of individual students in a class in relation to a particular objective at a particular time; changes in the kind and quality of students' responses to similar exercises given at different points in time; changes in style and/or quality of total class responses to similar exercises given at different points in time; the status of both the individuals in a class and the whole class, relative to other individuals and other classes.

A continuing record of individual and class performance can be used as feedback for modifying the program and for instituting procedures to correct errors or to accelerate the development of appropriate knowledge, thinking skills, or attitudes.

Self-Evaluation

One of the goals of THE TABA PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE is to encourage the student to become autonomous in his thinking. In order to do this, we need to consider how we can help him become critical of the products of his thinking. To the degree that his maturity permits, he should be encouraged to discover the criteria on which his thinking is being evaluated, judge the reasonableness of the criteria, and become self-critical in his judgment of the inferences, generalizations, and predictions he makes. 5

Evaluation by students need not be conducted in separate, formal sessions. Experience indicates that students' evaluation is more effective and less tedious when it is frequent and informal. Students need frequent opportunities to focus on the strength or weakness of their generalizations or to examine the way they have used a particular chart.

The students should repeatedly be encouraged to ask themselves the following questions: Are my thoughts well-organized? Are my thoughts on focus? Is my thinking appropriate to the task? Are my thoughts precise? Do I consider all the possibilities in my thinking? Do I use other information I already have? Do I evaluate my own thinking? 5

Helping students analyze the function of various thinking tasks enables them to evaluate their own statements and judge the precision and power of their ideas. Self-evaluation exercises can be conducted in a variety of ways—as a class, in pairs, or individually; in formal sessions or informally and briefly in any discussion; verbally or by diagramming. The effectiveness of such exercises can be observed when students spontaneously challenge overgeneralizations, whether found in books or generated by others around them, and when they in effect ask themselves, "How can I organize all this information I've gathered?" or "Does this statement really say what I meant to say?" Hopefully students will attempt to improve their statements and to accept as inevitable the fact that there will always be exceptions to any generalizations they make.

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